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AGENCIES OF SUPERVISION

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PREPARED BY
MAYBELL G. BUSH

ISSUED BY
C. P. CARY
State Superintendent

MADISON, WISCONSIN

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Wisconsin. Dept. of public instruction
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FOREWORD

This bulletin on supervision was prepared by Miss Bush of the State Department as a contribution to the problem of school supervision. It is my earnest hope that all persons in the state who have supervisory work to do will study it with care and utilize to the utmost extent the suggestions it contains.

General school supervision is an art in which few people are proficient. The supervisor should be well-equipped with technical knowledge and should possess numerous kinds of skill,—skill in reading; skill in drawing; skill in music; skill in actual teaching; skill in analyzing a situation; skill in dealing with children; skill in dealing with teachers, and so on through a long list.

A good teacher does not necessarily make a good supervisor. There are many qualities required in a supervisor that are not so essential for the classroom teacher. To be eminently successful, the supervisor must possess a deeper insight into the problems involved in education than do those he is called upon to supervise. The supervisor should dominate not by reason of the authority given him but by reason of the fact that he has a larger and richer personality and is possessed of an unusually wholesome and sympathetic attitude toward the children, the teachers, and the public.

The supervisor should understand the sociological bearings of the work of the schoolroom, and should also understand the psychology of children, including the stages of physical and mental development through which they normally pass.

The writer says there has been no attempt in this bulletin to give an exhaustive treatment of supervision. This is indeed true. An exhaustive treatment of supervision, except on its purely formal side, would require volumes.

There is developing in Wisconsin a consciousness of the needs of more adequate supervision. I would suggest that teachers

who are confident they possess the ability and personal qualities to develop into successful supervisors should seize the earliest opportunity to get the best training afforded in the United States in the subject of school supervision. Such a course for the general supervision of grade work would include educational sociology, educational psychology, biology, history of education, principles of education, special methods of various branches, observation of the best school work to be found, practice teaching, hygiene and sanitation, study of fatigue problems, the study of modern tests and measurements, and many more topics that might be mentioned.

A heavy program, no doubt the reader will say. True; it is. But the work of supervision, if it is to be at all adequate, involves extensive preparation. It is not to be assumed, however, that persons who find themselves in the position of supervisors, are to be cast down by the fact that their shortcomings are painfully evident to them. The country does not possess people who are thoroughly trained for supervision in sufficient numbers to supply more than a small fraction of the supervisory needs of the country. However, all supervisors should fully sense the requirements of the position and work as rapidly as possible in the direction of rendering efficient service.

The literature relating specifically to supervision is scant. Charles A. McMurray's *Handbook of Practice for Teachers*, (Macmillan Company), and Maxwell's recent little volume on *Observation of Teaching*, (Houghton, Mifflin Co.), should be in the hands of all supervisors.

The supervisor who takes his cue from the typical boss of a construction gang on a railroad is doomed to prompt and ignominious failure. The supervisor has for his function to encourage, to inspire, to strengthen, and to lead,—not to drive.

C. P. CARY,
State Superintendent.

AGENCIES OF SUPERVISION

Analytical Table of Contents

	Page
I. Introduction	6- 8
1. Nature of Supervision.	
2. Need for Supervision.	
3. Qualities of a supervisor.	
4. Relation of administration to supervision.	
II. Administrative activities.....	8-12
1. School organization.	
2. Community work.	
3. Leadership.	
4. Businesslike management.	
5. Unclassified activities.	
III. Supervisory agencies.....	12-32
1. The course of study for the grades:	
Arithmetic	
Language	
Reading	
Spelling	
History and Civics	
Geography	
Hygiene	
Music and Art	
Nature Study	
2. The daily program.	
3. Grade and department meetings.	
4. Demonstration teaching.	
5. Rating and choosing of teachers.	
6. Special studies of school conditions.	
7. Standard tests and measurements.	
8. Minor effective agencies.	
Visiting days and periods.	
School exhibits.	
Teachers' associations.	
Reading circle work.	
Written criticisms.	
9. Classroom visitation.	
IV. Conclusion	32
V. Bibliography	32-33
1. The Curriculum.	
2. Schoolroom Practice.	
3. Principles of Education.	
4. Surveys.	

I—INTRODUCTION

Nature of Supervision

"As is the teacher, so is the school," has become a maxim. No less true is this, "As is the supervisor, so is the school system under his jurisdiction." There is perhaps no executive position more replete with opportunity for growth, for real service, or for the development of a living, ever changing, and far-reaching institution than is the position of superintendent or supervising principal of a school system, either large or small. Yet this splendid opportunity is often lost, in part, because of the fact that in some cases the principal or superintendent does not realize that to a large degree **the skill shown in his school by the teachers in their classroom work is the real measure of his worth to the community.** Too often he is not conversant with the agencies of true supervision. Sometimes he is overloaded with classroom teaching and occasionally he is indifferent to the responsibility he has assumed.

There is a science of supervision, just as there is a science of classroom teaching, and certain necessary conditions must exist before successful results can follow. Chief among these is the attitude which must obtain between the supervisor and those supervised. A friendly spirit is vital to all supervisory activities. A consciousness on the part of all concerned that each is willing to acknowledge errors and is anxious to grow and improve through constant study and effort is also a fundamental requisite for constructive supervision.

Need for Supervision

Many people make the mistake of thinking that since provision has been made for the professional training of teachers, the work of the supervisor has been lessened. Just the opposite is true, however. The so-called "trained" teacher is just beginning her training when she leaves the normal school. She is helpless under the burden of strange pupils, strange textbooks, and either a strange course of study or none at all. She is also hampered by the lack of similarity between the conditions under which she did practice teaching and the actual conditions which she finds in the average school. She is, moreover, to a greater extent aware of her weaknesses and failures than was her untrained predecessor, and consequently she craves more help, and is capable of assimilating more professional aid. Expert supervision is necessary to give her confidence and to give her the information needed for the first few days without confusing her with a great amount of detail which will so overwhelm her that she will become discouraged.

This is a situation which faces practically every supervisor and suffices to show the necessity for his being familiar with the details of his course of study from the kindergarten through the high school. A knowledge of the textbooks in use in each grade is also required. He needs to know the places where things are kept, and the numbers and conditions of various kinds of supplies. But most of all, the supervisor must be informed regarding the scientifically determined standards of efficiency which should characterize the work of each grade.

The teacher of experience who enters a school system new to her is also handicapped unless she is well supervised. Her standards may not be correct. She may lose time unless she is informed as to exactly what is expected of her. All teachers need the constant stimulation which results from a careful analysis of their efforts together with a gripping incentive to grow in teaching strength.

Qualities of a Supervisor

The supervisor should at all times give evidence to his teachers that his wider experience and training have given him "control" of a large body of professional knowledge, made practical by experience and by a certain degree of skill in teaching. Until teachers feel that their supervisor has a broader outlook, a bigger grasp of educational problems, and a more thorough insight into the basic principles of teaching than they have, he cannot render the best service. Until teachers feel free to discuss their shortcomings with the supervisor from a professional point of view, he can be of little help to them.

Enough has probably been stated to show that no one is in the full sense a supervisor unless he can step into any classroom in his school at any time and be in a position to grasp its needs. He must be familiar with the subject matter to appreciate what is being done. It is well if, before offering suggestions to any teacher, he can be sure that he could have done more skillful work with the class than the teacher was doing. At least, he must be able to see in detail the various elements of strength and of weakness in each teacher's work and to give her concrete suggestions for improvement when necessary. It is gratifying to know that the ability to supervise intelligently and constructively is within the reach of every supervisor. He can study elementary and secondary education from the supervisory viewpoint. He can master the agencies of supervision. He can, in most cases, do much to create a feeling of friendliness and cooperation on the part of his teachers. It is the purpose of this pamphlet to suggest some of the supervisory activities in which even the overworked principal may engage which will raise the plane of the teaching in his school.

Relation of Supervision to Administration

Since teacher improvement is the fundamental purpose of supervision, the major part of the supervisor's activities must center about

those features which directly involve the teaching service. But, inasmuch as other matters need the attention of the one in charge, it is necessary for him to classify his duties under two heads, namely, administrative functions and supervisory functions. Many principals spend practically all of their time upon the administrative duties of their position, often petty duties, forgetting that these but very indirectly affect *the process of teacher-making*, which is the vital and professional part of their work.

Administrative duties by their very nature urge themselves upon the attention of the principal. Too frequently they engulf him and eclipse the matter of supervision. This need not be the case, however, because some effective supervision is being done by principals who have only two or three periods daily for all of their work outside of the classroom. Very often lack of system is responsible for the small amount of time principals find available for teacher help. Much of the work that some principals assume could be taken charge of by other teachers, such as the signing of excuses, assembly room periods, detailed clerical work relative to giving out of books, keeping of certain kinds of permanent school records, etc. These duties distributed among the teachers give them a sense of responsibility and increase their interest in and knowledge of the whole school.

The chart on page 9 indicates a fair estimate of the relative importance of the administrative and supervisory phases of the supervisor's work measured by its relation to the needs of the children in the school.

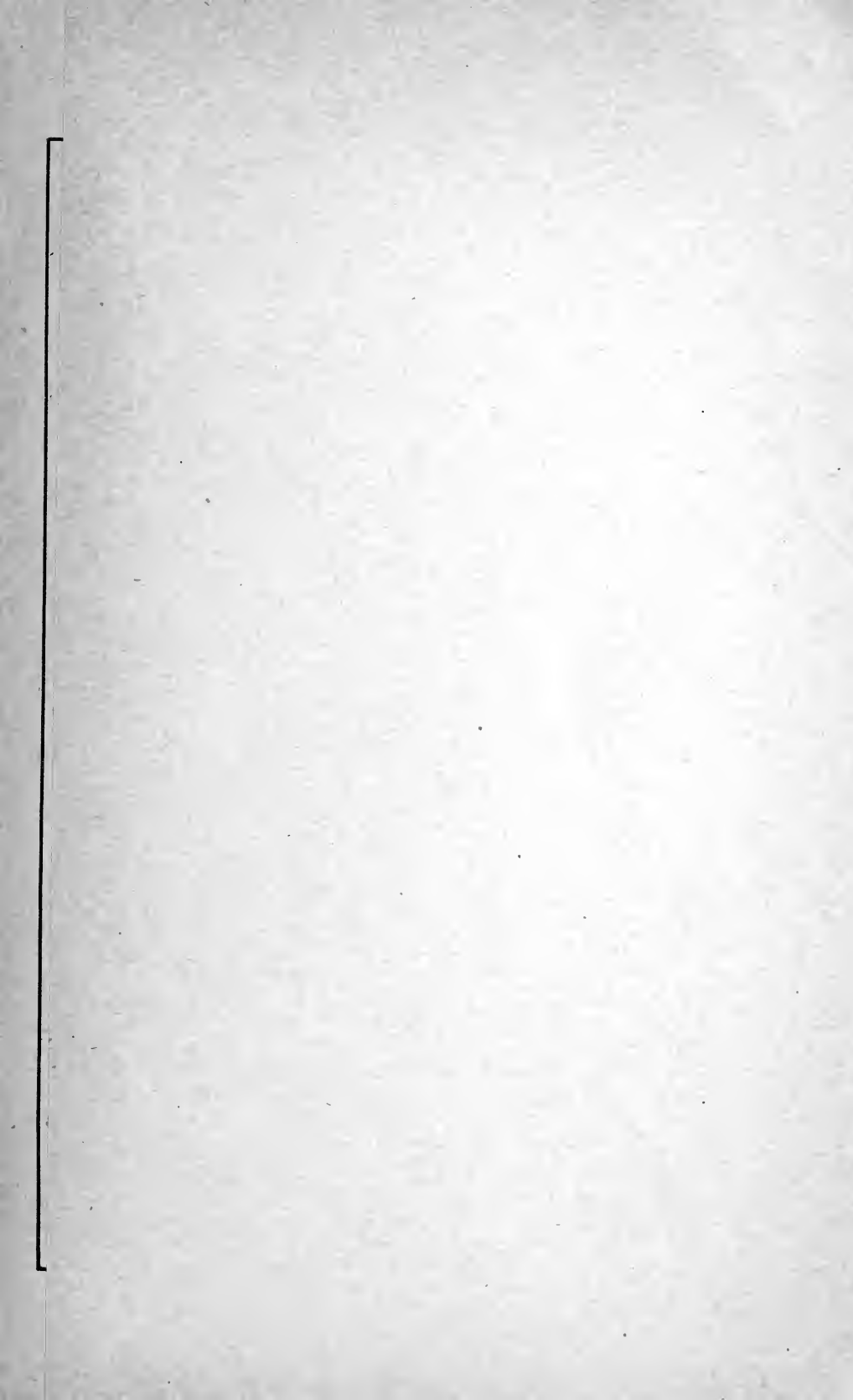
II ADMINISTRATIVE ACTIVITIES

School Organization

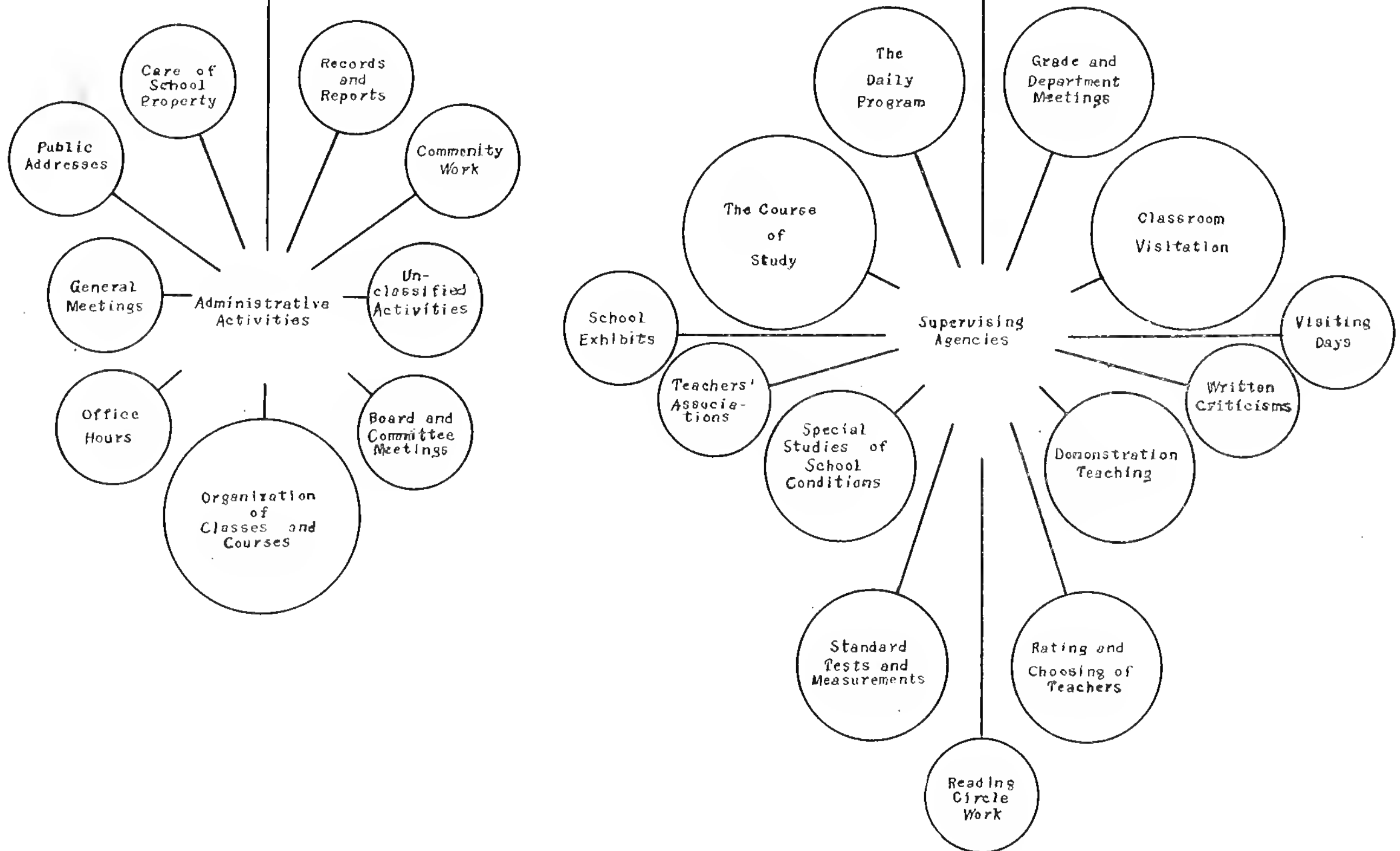
Without doubt, the supervisor's most vital administrative duty consists in the organization of classes and courses in accordance with the community's needs and resources. This, however, should not be done after school begins, and hence should not interfere with supervision. It is true that the principal must oversee the care of the school property, but timely instructions to the janitor will in a large measure accomplish this. The school records must be accurate and complete. However, a few hours of head work combined with a good filing system and the assistance of the other teachers in the school will reduce this work to its proper claim upon the principal's time.

Community Work

The welfare of his school requires participation in community activities and the earnest principal will organize a parent-teachers' association with local leaders in almost any locality. It is necessary to **make**



The Supervisor's Work



sure that the leaders chosen will plan meetings that are worth while. The parents' meetings should attract and hold the entire community. Such an association brings much good feeling and hearty cooperation into the school, besides conveying directly to the patrons an understanding of its accomplishments and its needs. This activity, again, encroaches but little on the time that could be used for supervision.

Leadership

Leadership is a necessary attribute of a successful school principal. This implies certain dynamic qualities in his personal make-up, coupled with dependable information and good judgment. In order to be a worthy leader, it is necessary to devote some time each day to study and to general reading. No matter how busy he is, the school principal cannot afford to neglect this. His own growth depends upon it. He must keep himself informed upon the world problems of the day and he should discuss many of these topics at assembly periods in his school.

The leadership of the principal, however, must be felt throughout the town if the school is to fully serve its patrons.

One of the most effective ways of gaining the confidence of the community is through public addresses on constructive topics. The opportunity to appear before adults and to speak upon live topics is of untold value to the principal. His work compels him to associate with immature minds much of the time. It is, however, quite a different matter to face an audience composed of people who have had perhaps a broader training than he has had, and to give them a real message. There is doubtless no other one feature of his work that develops the personality of the principal to a greater degree than does vital public speaking. Besides this through his talks he can do much to shape public opinion and to improve local conditions.

Businesslike Management

Much of the time given to administrative work within the school can be saved by the increased use of a duplicator. Many directions, much data, and general information, which all of the teachers need, can be far more accurately and effectively conveyed in written form than by frequent general meetings. In fact, general meetings are justified, only when topics which vitally affect each and every teacher's work are involved. Some of the administrative and supervisory helps made with the duplicator are suggested by the following:

1. Circular letters giving information about special opportunities for attending lecture courses or study classes.
2. Statements in detail regarding work to be specially stressed during a given term or year.
3. Plans for schoolroom beautification.
4. Outlines of subjects to be discussed, with spaces for notes, to be distributed at teachers' meetings.

5. Complete lesson plans with subject matter included made by some one teacher, thereby made available for use by all.

6. Lists of supplementary examples and problems in arithmetic to facilitate the work of any given grade.

7. Suggestions in detail for adapting any part of the course of study to class needs.

8. Lists of timely problems and topics as a basis for study of any school subject in any grade.

9. Copies of appropriate poems for study by pupils.

10. Lists of suggestive subjects for live compositions.

11. Copies of some of the standard tests (thereby reducing expense).

12. Plans for civic and social school activities.

A general meeting is appropriate before the year's work begins, at which time the principal takes charge and puts briefly before the teachers a carefully thought out policy for the year and explains such details of management as cannot be presented to the teachers in duplicated sheets. The following information and facilities for work should be given to the teachers, either orally or in writing before they begin their duties in order that loss of efficiency, waste of time, misunderstandings and consequent unpleasantness may be avoided.

1. Assignments to classes or grades.

2. Outlines for special subjects, etc.

3. Copies of the entire course of study for grades or H. S.

4. Copies of the elaborated course for specific grades or classes.

5. Copies of time allotment sheets for the making of the daily programs in grades.

6. Copies of one or two suggestive programs (those use successfully in previous years).

7. Samples of each of the record cards, etc., in use in the school.

8. A list of the pupils properly belonging to each grade.

9. A list of the textbooks and reference books available for each grade or class, with directions for obtaining these.

10. Copies of the schedule of the special teachers together with a definite statement of the duties of the regular teacher while the special teacher is in the room.

11. Directions for reports to health and attendance officers.

12. Plans in detail for playground, hall, or basement duties and definite statements of the time before the sessions open that the teacher is to be on duty.

13. Definite instructions as to management at recess and noon of matters relating to discipline and dismissal.

14. Definite directions for plan books, progress books, etc.

15. Definite directions for sending out reports to parents.

16. Methods of grading pupils. For example, a fair estimate would seem to be that not more than $\frac{1}{3}$ of the rating should be based on formal examinations, the other $\frac{2}{3}$ being based on oral and written class exercises.

Important as any of these administrative functions are, all told they will not in themselves make a school in which a child can attain his best development. These are the factors which affect the school machinery only.

School administration must be modern in plan. It must be kept up

to standard throughout the year, but its importance must be estimated from a viewpoint which takes into account not just the external running of the school, but also considers the progress, the habits, and the general welfare of every child in the system. This brings into account the work of those who meet the boys and girls face to face every day. Here indeed is the opportunity of the school supervisor. His nobility of character, his faithfulness as a student, his power to stimulate and his willingness to serve are on trial at all times before a corps of active teachers and a mass of eager boys and girls. He can hide his inability or his indifference behind his office walls while appearing to earn his salary, but this he cannot do when actively engaged in the work which he is in duty bound to perform when he accepts the position of principal or superintendent of a school system.

Unclassified Activities

It is true that many other administrative functions, difficult to classify, are vital to the success of the school. Many of these cannot be slighted without serious loss resulting. Constant vigilance, however, must be maintained by the supervisor, lest he overestimate the proportion of his time which he can afford to spend in this way. The magnitude of his supervisory activities and the far-reaching effect of time spent in supervision must be kept in mind.

Occasional inspection of his own work by use of a time card is helpful to the principal in enabling him to divide his time justly. It is startling sometimes to see one's record of a day's work in terms of really trivial occupations, time devoted to each, and cost to the system of each activity. The time card for personal use inspires a more profitable distribution of time and a corresponding increase in fruitful accomplishment.

III SUPERVISORY AGENCIES

The Course of Study

The course of study, the supervisor, and the teachers are the three factors which most vitally affect the school product, hence the superintendent or principal must carefully analyze and constantly improve the school curriculum. Certain basic principles underly the making of a curriculum. (These are ably discussed in the Teachers' College Record of September, 1915, and in other references listed at the end of the pamphlet.) Every school can base its course of study upon these modern standards to the extent of making those concrete changes in the present curriculum which are necessitated by present day social and economic needs. It is possible to have a flexible curriculum by keeping it in typewritten form so that modifications are easily made.

It is not sufficient simply to enumerate the topics to be taught in history, for example, in a certain grade. The course of study should indicate the method of approach to these topics, giving suggestive problems for study, outside readings, local associations, and the approximate amount of time to be spent upon each problem or topic. Some of the needed changes in the average curriculum for the elementary grades will be discussed under their subject heads.

Arithmetic. Arithmetic needs to be definitely changed from an abstract science usable only in school to a utilitarian study. This can be done by basing its practices on actual business transactions taken from the pupils' home interests and experiences and by limiting it principally to those topics which the average citizen will repeatedly use. In primary grades, sense training through participation in life situations should, to a marked degree, replace formal drills. But it must be remembered that arithmetic is a tool with which pupils are to work rapidly and skillfully. To obtain this skill requires effective drill at the proper time and in the proper way. In all of the grades, the time given to oral and mental arithmetic should exceed that allotted to written problems. Much practice should be given in estimating answers to problems whose conditions pupils can fully sense. Differentiated practice to overcome the chronic faults of individual pupils should be provided. Competition, time limits, and self-discovery of personal needs should motivate all practice work. Principles such as these need to be incorporated in the course of study to insure effective teaching.

Dissatisfaction with the results of arithmetic teaching in the elementary schools is no new thing. Twenty-five years ago, a committee from the City Superintendents' and Supervising Principals' Association of the State of Wisconsin made recommendations for lessening the amount of formal arithmetic work which was being required of children.

While we may not today favor the complete omission of all of the topics they suggested, yet the almost universal failure of pupils year after year to grasp the real conditions underlying some topics usually attempted amply justifies their omission at least until the high school age is reached. Pupils then, being older, have had a greater opportunity to gain through experience the information which is absolutely necessary to vitalize the work, and without which the blind effort is really detrimental to the pupils.

Since some modern textbooks continue to incorporate these topics in the text intended for 7th and 8th grades, either one of two courses is open to the supervisor. He may suggest the use of only the first two of a three-book series in the grades, or he may omit from the course of study those topics usually found in the complete arithmetic which experience has shown cannot be profitably studied by grade pupils.

Language and Grammar. Language exercises should lead to the attainment of the ability to express one's thoughts clearly, correctly,

concisely, and with some degree of fluency. All language or so-called grammar exercises that do not contribute directly to these ends by affording practice in correct expression are useless. It has been proved by the results of tests and by the testimony of instructors and students of education of wide experience that language is the result of habit and is only slightly influenced by the knowledge one has of grammar. Pupils have been repeatedly found who excel in grammar but who are very weak in their ability to *use* language successfully. Progressive educators generally favor the idea that formal grammar need not be taught below the high school, and that if taught it should occupy only a minor part of the time given to English during the last two years. The grammar taught should be taught through language needs and should be limited to the simplest constructions possible.

The superintendent has it in his power to insist that not more than three days per week in the 8th and not more than two in the 7th grade be devoted to grammar. He can authorize his teachers to omit those lessons in the text which cannot be justified by the course of study which has been adopted. The use of the grammar text as a reference book and to summarize information gained through particular cases which come up in any spoken or written exercise is commendable. Emphasis can be put upon the classification and correction of typical errors of speech. To supplement the course of study, several different texts can be provided for the use of the teacher which will suggest to her language exercises which are vital to the needs of her class.

The daily programs can be made to read "Language" rather than "Grammar" as an aid to changing the teacher's viewpoint, which is one of the factors retarding the changes needed in language teaching to satisfy present needs in our schools. Teachers like to teach grammar. Language is much more difficult and the immediate results are less gratifying. The subject of language needs to be carefully outlined in detail for the average teacher, in order to insure work being done which will function in improved *language* habits in the community.

Reading. Reading is perhaps one of the subjects in which there is less need for radical changes in the course of study than in the two subjects previously discussed. The vital need in reading is more in the field of method. Much valuable time is lost in the reading recitation period, and much more is badly used.

More silent reading needs to be done than is now being accomplished. Rapid silent reading should be cultivated; it has been neglected in our schools. The supervisor needs to insist upon a revision of and increase in the list of supplementary reading material available so that instead of reading one or two books in a year, pupils in the primary classes will read many books, and those in the upper grades will read proportionately more material but probably not a greater number of books. In addition to this, several hundred pages of silent reading should be done by all pupils each year.

Recent studies show conclusively that pupils who read a wide range of material quickly are better readers, retain more easily and enjoy reading more than do pupils who read more slowly and who read less. Nevertheless, pupils should also have practice in intensive reading or real study of texts. The aims of reading need to be clearly understood by both teachers and supervisors, and should be stated in the course of study.

Spelling. Spelling is one of the subjects which has undergone much change as a result of investigation as to our real need for spelling. Ayres, Jones, Cook and O'Shea, Pryor, and others have shown us that the kind of words we need to spell are not the ones we are spending time on in school. Dr. B. R. Buckingham's investigation proved that there is a difference in the ease with which words are learned, and that the present methods used in learning to spell are not methods of economy. Some suggestions for improving spelling teaching are as follows:

1. Local spelling lists may often be profitably substituted in part for the spelling book. (Words taken from industries, business words, geographical terms.)
2. Words taken from the other school studies need to be known.
3. Words listed by Ayres and by Jones, as among those most often spelled today should be taught.
4. The best ways of learning to spell should be determined and taught to pupils.
5. The personal list of words misspelled by each pupil should be his spelling book.
6. Every written lesson should be a spelling lesson.
7. More time should be spent on intelligent and discriminating study of spelling, and less on writing lists of words.
8. The real test of spelling is the ability to write on any ordinary topic and spell accurately. Pupils should be graded on this basis and not on marks obtained by writing a column of words just "crammed" for the occasion.
9. Phonics as an aid to spelling (above grade one) should be emphasized.
10. Knowing how to spell words which are not in the speaking and writing vocabulary of the child is generally useless information.
11. To have pupils form the habit of constant watchfulness of their spelling is the most important aim of training in this subject.

History and Civics. Courses of study in these subjects vary greatly in amount of material given, in the method of attack, and in the choice of subject matter. Certain principles, however, are common to most modern courses in civics and history. It is now generally agreed that the study of civics must teach pupils the practices and uses of government through *participation* in real or make believe elections, legislatures, etc. It is also now recognized that civics and history teaching must be vitalized by visits to the local courts, election booths, council meetings, etc. The larger aims of civics and history teaching are the establishment of right standards of citizenship, together with the ability to use intelligently the instruments of democracy. These aims

can be accomplished by studying the local public institutions, such as the water supply, the fire protection, or the care of dependents. The study of state institutions, e. g., the board of health, the industrial commission, or the railroad commission is to be encouraged. It must be understood that these agencies of government are to be studied by visiting their offices, by reading their publications, by finding out just what each is for, and by studying their functions in terms of local problems.

Such topics as these form the basis of a live course of study in civics. These rather than the formal phraseology of the constitution help young people to form correct ideas regarding their duties as citizens. A brief study of the constitution should be made; but by far the greater part of the teaching of civics should concern itself with the social problems of today. Those problems must be selected regarding which definite information is available and only those problems should be studied which can be comprehended by the pupils. However, when taught in terms of *local* application, many of our governmental institutions are within the understanding of grammar grade pupils. The course of study should list a suitable range of topics and suggest sources of necessary information regarding each. It may provide suggestive civic enterprises upon which pupils may engage for school credit.

History, ancient, medieval, and modern, is taught in some elementary schools. In others, only United States history is required. The present tendency seems to favor more inspirational history in the grades, giving the child a glimpse of the actions, feelings, and institutions of the peoples of the world from earliest times up to the present. This leaves the more intensive study of United States history for the high school. This plan is of especial advantage to the pupil who leaves school early. Four years of history, two of world history and two of American history, is a satisfactory amount for the grades. This may be begun in the third or fourth grade in biographical and story form and be given in full year and half year courses. The part year courses may be filled in with hygiene or with civics.

The course of study should state the purposes of history teaching. It should specify definitely the material to be taught in terms of specific topics and problems for each grade. It should include the contact points with present day history, the local places of historical interest and the relics obtainable. It may suggest people who are willing to be interviewed for first hand information. It should indicate the outside readings available, together with such other helps as maps, etc., needed to solve every problem. Such a course of study enables the teacher to teach a living, vital history which makes for true national solidarity. It makes use of a variety of texts and other reference books and acquaints the pupils with present problems through the use of historical facts rather than allowing them to recite words the use of historical facts. It does not allow them to recite words from one single text, words which in most cases have no mental pictures or intelligent thought back of them.

Geography. There is no school subject more rich in content than is geography. Geographical knowledge is needed by everyone and hence it is of interest to both young and old.

The course of study in this subject often consists of page references to a certain text. This is to be regretted, because geography is so much bigger than any text and so much more local than a text could possibly be that it robs geography of its greatest value to the child—opportunity for imagining, thinking, and doing—to limit the course to any one text, no matter how good that text may be.

A stimulating course of study in geography must be based upon the personal needs and present interests of the child. He must sense things through actual experience and observation of the phenomena of nature. Such questions as "Why is the grass wet when it has not rained?" "Where did the bread I ate come from?" "What makes it dark at night?" are common among young children. Experiment has shown that geographical truths, being nature's facts and laws, are easily understood by young pupils. The natural course of study, then, is based upon topics vital to the child. These vary with every locality, but each, when studied, helps the little thinker more nearly to understand the great fundamental truths of the universe.

More than one text is needed to follow such a course as this. Constant reference needs to be made to home conditions as a basis for interpretation of foreign conditions. A suggestive list of concrete geographical problems having their origin in local needs and calling for use of the generalized knowledge in the text as a means toward their solution should be a part of the course of study. The use of such problems fixes the facts of the text in the pupils' minds because they actually *use* the facts to solve the problems, instead of just aimlessly memorizing them.

Place geography may be taught successfully as a summary or review exercise after the names have content for the pupils. When place geography is taught by means of map sketching, it unifies ideas and fixes associated places in a very effective way.

To secure unity of purpose, all of the principles governing good geography teaching need to be determined and stated in the course of study. Some of these have been suggested here. The major features to be emphasized need to be definitely stated. Because of the breadth of the subject, the course should exclude all material that is not geography.

Hygiene. Most schools make some provision for hygiene, but in only a few instances does the study effect any change in the habits of life of the individuals who recite it so fluently.

The course of study can bring about a change. Instead of requiring hygiene to be recited, it must specify right-living requirements. The standards for passing from grade to grade in this subject must be based upon bad habits conquered, good new habits formed, bad postures corrected, deformities removed, demonstrations of first aid work, teeth records, outdoor sleeping records, increased growth in proper proportions, etc.

The specifying of what is to be **done** in hygiene, rather than what is to be **talked about**, will result in improved health, greater interest in the subject, and much valuable knowledge made available for the community.

Music and Art. The course of study in these subjects is often left to the special teacher. This is unfortunate in that it tends to keep these two arts from being a means of expression for the other school subjects. Every effort should be made to bring each of the school subjects within the scope of the music and art work. Especially can the latter be made helpful to the literature work in the illustration of poems; and to the geography teacher in the arranging of exhibits, charts, etc. Booklet covers can be made for the history story and posters for the domestic science sale. Music fits into the history work and into the reading at times.

There are many well correlated courses of study in music and art available. With these as guides, any school could make a course adapted to its needs. This would insure steady progress from grade to grade, and make these subjects fulfill their real mission in the lives of the pupils.

Nature Study. There is no subject more closely related to the interests of the child than is nature study. Each grade should accomplish a definite amount of work in this subject. Practical courses of study must vary with each type of locality, but every child is entitled to such a training as will enable him to recognize and to know something about the life of the common birds, animals, insects, trees, plants, and shrubs, of his community. He will be a better citizen because of this knowledge. He can appreciate the beauties and wonders of nature much more fully than will ever be possible without an acquaintance with his surroundings. It is true that the work in geography is closely allied with what is usually termed nature study, but often the topics herein indicated are entirely omitted from the work given under the title of geography.

Suggestive courses of study can be found in many of the curricula issued for cities throughout the United States. It is to be hoped that these will be studied and adapted to the needs of the individual school. This subject should be given more emphasis than it is now receiving in our schools.

The Daily Program

As soon as school opens, real supervision should begin. Probably, the daily programs as submitted by various grade teachers will be one of the features needing early attention. There has been much written upon the subject of the school program, yet gross violations of good practice are very common. Some of the matters to which the principal should give attention are the following:

1. Is the opening exercise period definitely provided for so that any one can see at a glance what is to be done at that time?
2. Are recreation periods provided at times following strenuous thinking periods?

3. Are motor subjects, such as drawing or penmanship, placed at other times than at the beginning of the session?

4. Is *all* of the school time accounted for?

5. Is arithmetic as a regular subject omitted from the first grade program?

6. Is provision made for sectioning of classes? (All classes numbering over 20 pupils can profitably be sectioned according to their ability, at least in arithmetic and reading. Primary grades can often advantageously work in three or more groups in reading and phonics.)

7. In primary grades, is phonics provided for at other than the reading time on the program, sectioned to correspond to the reading? Is more time given to practice in reading than to word drills and phonics?

8. Is language given at least a twenty-minute period for each group of pupils in the primary grades?

9. Is penmanship or writing provided for on all programs?

10. Is due advantage taken of the fact that it is often better to teach such subjects as history, civics, or physiology for half a year with an adequate daily recitation period, than to carry too many subjects all of the year with very brief recitation periods?

11. Is reading made available at least twice per day for all grades from I through III?

12. Is there provision made for special help periods in each grade if no teacher is provided for ungraded work?

13. Is good balance preserved between the particular needs of a given grade and the time allotments?

14. Are study periods well distributed?

15. Are programs of different grades so planned that pupils may recite some subjects in the grade below or above his own?

16. In classes having two or more grades in the room, does the program provide for periods of sufficient length to be practical? If not, cannot combinations in spelling, reading, etc., be made according to ability, rather than to grade,—thereby lessening the number of classes?

17. Is the following allotment of time in general followed in each daily program? (This time schedule was compiled from the results of recently made studies of effective school programs.)

Subject	Per cent of Time	Median No. of Minutes
Language Arts.....	35%-45%	120
Language, Spelling, Literature		
Reading, Grammar, Writing		
Mathematics	10%-20%	45
Science	10%-14%	36
Hygiene, Agriculture		
Geography, Nature		
History and Civics.....	8%-12%	30
Art	6%-10%	24
Drawing, Music		
Other Activities.....	10%-20%	45
Manual Training, Construction		
Physical Culture, Dom. Science		
General Exercises		

A more detailed guide for program making is found in the following table which was arranged by Dr. W. W. Theisen of the State Department from H. S. Holmes' study in the Fourteenth Year Book, Part I. These time allotments were approximated to the nearest five minutes because Dr. Holmes' study was made on a yearly basis.

AVERAGE AMOUNT OF TIME IN THE GRADES PER WEEKLY
ALLOTMENT TO EACH SUBJECT AS FOUND
IN 50 AMERICAN CITIES.

	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.	Total.
Arithmetic	95	150	205	230	225	225	215	220	1,565
Reading	410	365	290	235	195	180	150	150	1,975
Language	115	120	145	165	180	185	210	220	1,340
Writing	75	95	80	80	75	75	60	55	595
Spelling	85	100	115	105	95	90	80	80	750
Geography	25	10	75	130	160	165	150	120	835
History	40	50	55	90	105	110	140	180	770
Science	55	65	60	55	55	60	70	90	510
Art. & Construction.....	150	85	85	80	75	75	75	75	700
Manual Training	65	75	60	70	75	85	110	115	655
Music	70	130	75	75	70	70	70	70	630
Physical Training	70	65	60	60	60	60	60	60	495
Opening Exercises	60	60	60	55	50	50	50	50	435
Recess	135	130	130	120	115	110	100	100	940
Miscellaneous	120	100	135	120	120	120	120	135	970
Total.....	1,570	1,600	1,630	1,670	1,655	1,660	1,660	1,720	13,165

In the above schedule, reading includes phonics, literature, dramatics, story-telling, memorization of poems, etc. Language includes, composition, grammar, word study, etc. Arithmetic includes algebra. History includes civics. Science includes picture study, art, etc. Manual training includes industrial training, handwork, etc. Physical training includes athletics, gymnastics, folk dancing.

Only part of the 50 cities considered, reported any time devoted to arithmetic in grade I. The average of 95 minutes was computed from just those which reported any time given to arithmetic. If this schedule is used as a guide in arranging daily programs, it is recommended that the time allotted to arithmetic in grade I be used for other activities and that first grade arithmetic be taught in connection with other subjects.

Grade and Department Meetings

Most supervisors hold meetings of their teachers at frequent intervals, but in the smaller schools these are often attended by all of the teachers and therefore only topics of general interest are discussed. These meetings also often deal with administrative rather than with supervisory features of the school.

Teachers' meetings, rightly conducted, are one of the most vital means of effective supervision. However, they must be as carefully planned as would be any other important school function. The purpose of the meeting must be definitely understood by all. The meeting is in a sense a failure if each teacher does not go away from it better equipped for her work than when she came. It is usually best to plan meetings as aids to carrying out the year's policy which has been set

forth at the first general meeting of the year. Various methods of conducting these gatherings are successfully practiced. In some cases, topics are presented by certain teachers, after which general discussion follows. Another plan is to have the principal present the main topic, after which questions may be asked by all present. Round table discussions may occasionally be profitable if the subject of the meeting is such that extemporaneous discussion will result in benefit to the school.

Some of the subjects which are suitable for meetings of teachers of the same grade or of the same department are given in the hope that they may prove suggestive of what it is possible to accomplish in such conferences.

1. Explanation of the basic principles governing the course of study in each subject in the various grades.

2. Definite statements of the standards of accomplishment expected in each subject in each grade.

3. Demonstration and discussion of effective methods for accomplishing desired ends (economical methods of conducting drill exercises to meet the needs of the various individuals in the class; socialized recitations; problem method of teaching; group reading; topical recitations; study recitation, etc.)

4. Comparison of results of two kinds of teaching to test which is more beneficial.

5. Discussion of the findings and suggestive remedies for improving the teaching of subjects tested by standard tests.

6. Presentation and discussion of previously well worked out plans for individual promotions, promotions by subject, or semi-annual promotions.

7. Presentation of plans for special help work.

8. Plans for avoiding waste of materials.

9. Instruction in the special subjects (music, art, manual training, etc.,) when regular teachers are expected to assist in this work.

10. Examination of and study of how best to use the various text and reference books.

11. Presentation of (perhaps with demonstration and discussion) the various types of lessons with suggestions as to the most profitable use of each type.

12. Reports on modern pedagogical books accompanied by the application of their theories to local needs and problems.

13. Directions for giving simple physical examinations, with instructions for ministering to physical needs of pupils.

14. Reports of state and national meetings if the subjects reported upon bear directly upon the work of the teachers present.

15. Suggestions from teachers for improvements in the course of study, for new reference books, for better supervision or better working conditions.

16. Criteria for judging texts in regard to their value and the arrangement of subject matter.

Demonstration Teaching

This agency of supervision is capable of much extension and corresponding benefit, not only to the observers, but to the demonstrating teacher. The supervisor should be willing at any time to prepare and

teach a lesson for his teachers to aid them in their efforts to improve. Often the principal wishes to illustrate some method of procedure. The most vital way possible is for the principal to teach a selected group of pupils who will be able to lend themselves to the matter in hand. He should do this at such a time that all of the teachers concerned can be present. The type of teaching he wishes to emphasize can be set forth directly and vividly. The small group of pupils simplifies the machinery and enables the lesson to proceed rapidly. The pupils can then be dismissed and the principles underlying this lesson, and others of its type, freely discussed.

Nearly every experienced teacher does some one kind of teaching very well. A very profitable supervisory measure consists in asking a teacher to give a demonstration lesson in the subject in which she excels. This has a two-fold result. It inspires the teacher to continue to improve in her specialty and it aids other teachers to get new ideas. Impersonal discussion, relating the lesson to the psychological truths upon which it was based should follow every demonstration.

By watching for each teacher's strongest features, considerable variety and much stimulation results from this kind of supervision, besides establishing valuable standards of teaching.

Another phase of demonstration work which insures improvement in class work is the plan of having the teachers prepare lessons to teach for the supervisor. He should be willing to go at the regular class time, if possible, and remain for a discussion of the lesson. This self-imposed attempt to improve service indicates a high type of school spirit and should be encouraged until it becomes a regular practice in the school.

Rating and Choosing of Teachers

There was at one time some difference of opinion as to the wisdom of rating teachers according to a scale made up of professionally determined standards. It is now accepted, however, that this is the only fair means for estimating teaching efficiency. The community judges the teacher by what the pupils say and by her appearance, manner, habits, etc. The school board is apt to consider her ability to discipline as the most important quality to be considered. Neither of these estimates include all of the necessary qualities which must characterize the satisfactory teacher.

The advantage of the established scale lies in the fact that it not only serves as a measure for each of the now recognized qualities that are vital to successful teaching, but it suggests to the teachers the qualities which are not only desirable but are required. The chief disadvantages in the use of a score card or scale consist in the disagreement which prevails among authorities as to the comparative values of the essential qualities that make for success in teaching, and in the variations in the estimates put upon the elements of person-

ality which more and more are coming to be regarded as the major part of a teacher's equipment.

Educational qualifications can be definitely measured; physical fitness can be accurately determined; but the native and acquired personal and social qualities are at present not satisfactorily reduced to scale measurement. However, unsatisfactory as the present scales of measurement are, they are vastly superior to hastily formed, personally influenced, non-scientifically determined judgments of worth. Two well-known scales for measuring teaching efficiency are E. C. Elliot's "*A Tentative Scheme for the Measurement of Teaching Efficiency*," and the score card used for establishing the "success grade" in Indiana, published in the Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction in Indiana, 1908. There are several other scales available which will prove very helpful in aiding supervisors to form fair judgments.

It is true that any of these scales, because of the present unsettled standards for determining true efficiency, are of necessity complicated. However, a careful study of them is of value both to the teacher and to the supervisor.

Since there is no standard which so stimulates attainment as does one which is self-imposed, copies of various scientifically made scales may be secured and the teachers asked to examine them. They may select from these scales those standards which seem to them most vital. At a meeting for the purpose, these simplified schemes made by the teachers may be combined into a scale, suggested by the teachers themselves, consisting of perhaps a dozen topics with their assigned values. After these have been agreed upon, a copy should be given to each teacher early in the year with the request that she mark herself conscientiously. Meantime, the principal should rate each teacher on a similar sheet, and at a time convenient for both the teachers and principal, each teacher should be requested to meet with the supervisor in a private conference. Her estimate of herself may then be compared with the ratings which her supervisor has given her. A free, friendly discussion consisting of an analysis of the greatest weakness revealed by the markings and constructive suggestions for its correction will naturally follow. The combined efforts of teacher and supervisor should enable the teacher to correct her fault, and when she has done this, her principal should tell her so and help her to attack and conquer another element of inefficiency. This process requires some time, but what could be more profitable than the intelligent, concentrated effort to overcome glaring faults by each member of a teaching force? Later in the year another rating may be made and another conference held, at which time a teacher should be told definitely whether or not she is to be recommended for another year's service and on what conditions.

The choosing of new teachers should also be upon a scientific plane. If possible it is most satisfactory to see a teacher working in two or three different situations before engaging her. The ratings given her

by former supervisors are usually helpful in estimating fitness for a given position. Almost without exception, the supervisor is the one person in the school system whose experience and training have qualified him to choose teachers, and much better results would follow in our smaller schools if the school boards would recognize this fact. The supervisor is responsible for the work of the teachers, therefore he should select those who are to teach under his direction.

Special Studies of School Conditions

Every school has some characteristic weak places. Some features of work may be generally poor, or in a certain building less satisfactory work may be accomplished than in the rest of the system. Certain social conditions may require a differentiated course of study for a given locality. A dozen and one local problems are peculiar to each school system. Every efficient supervisor should single out one of the major problems peculiar to his school and analyze it carefully. He should then present it to the teachers concerned and together they should work out the solution of the matter. It adds interest to regular work, it reveals latent capabilities, and secures increased cooperation to work out definite problems within the school system; and the wise principal will keep something of this nature before his teachers at all times. But he will also be careful not to have too many projects in hand at any one time, lest interest be so divided as to be ineffective.

Among the special studies which have proved helpful are: (1) the tabulating and graphing of teachers' marks, to determine whether or not teachers use fair standards in estimating attainment; (2) studies of the causes of nonpromotion to enable it to be lessened in the future; (3) a study of retardation—its causes and remedies in a given school; (4) inquiry into and adjustments to correct undue variation in ability in any given grade; (5) experiment work with different methods of teaching in parallel classes to determine the more effective plan; (6) and social surveys to throw light on school needs. Many other problems of vital use to the local system will suggest themselves to those principals who endeavor to employ scientific methods of supervision.

Standard Tests and Measurements

The use of standard tests and measurements as an effective means of supervision is rapidly increasing in practice. This method of learning the state of a given school is closely allied to "special studies of school conditions" in that the tests often reveal local or general weaknesses that were hitherto unsuspected. Very profitable problems for study and correction are in this way brought to the attention of the supervisor. It is now possible to test pupils in the fundamentals in practically every grade. Reasoning tests are also available. Individual needs and capabilities of pupils are emphatically set forth by tests and striking instances of poor grading and consequent loss of efficiency

are indisputably evidenced by analyses of test results. A few of the many specific supervisory uses of standard tests are given below.

1. They show how a given school system compares in performance with the standard in each of the subjects tested.

2. The tests show the variation in ability found in different buildings in the same system.

3. Differing abilities of pupils in a given grade are vividly shown, giving opportunity for resectioning and promoting classes according to ability.

4. The comparative abilities of a given child in each subject can be determined and used as a basis for more suitable grading of such a child.

5. Pupils far above their grade in one or two subjects are indicated and can be treated accordingly, being either allowed to omit those subjects or to recite in higher classes.

6. The phenomenal pupils in any system are pointed out, and these exceptional children can then be allowed to specialize in the subjects in which they are so gifted.

7. The very slow pupils are revealed, also those who are weak in only certain subjects or groups of subjects. Perhaps they should be allowed to go on, omitting the studies for which they have no native ability.

8. The careful analysis by each teacher of the types of errors made by her pupils indicates in a very definite way the concrete exercises which should constitute the practice given to the pupils.

9. Tests confirm estimates of supervisors as to comparative strength and weaknesses of various teachers.

10. Teachers especially fitted to teach certain subjects in departmental organizations are brought to notice by the excellence of their results.

11. Analysis of their results by the teachers themselves affords the best type of introspection, and the consequent self-set questioning attitude as to the causes of unexpected failures is the most stimulating kind of training in service which a teacher can receive. Improvement is almost sure to result from self-judgment of the merit of her own work by the teacher.

12. Progress in ability from grade to grade is shown, and places where greater stress needs to be put upon any subject are revealed.

13. Places in the system where certain subjects are under-stressed and others are correspondingly over-stressed are plainly set forth by test results.

14. Justification *in results* for praise or condemnation of any certain method that has been extensively used by any teacher is found when results of tests are tabulated and compared.

15. Standard tests throw light on the scientific phases of teaching and enable the supervisor to form more accurate judgments of school conditions.

16. Teachers are helped to broaden their standards for estimating attainment in any subject.

17. Tests show to teachers certain elements constituting real mastery of subjects which they have perhaps entirely overlooked in their presentations. They thereby assist in rounding out teachers' ideas of what constitutes effective instruction.

Every principal should incorporate some regular test work into his supervision. He should then follow each test with a complete analysis of results, with untiring inquiry into causes for failures, and with forceful remedies for improving any unfavorable conditions revealed.

Minor Effective Agencies of Supervision

Visiting Days and Visiting Periods. If it is found that a given teacher fails to grasp the ideas which are necessary for her improvement, a day or more spent in visiting the work of a stronger teacher often proves to be the means which brings about the desired results. To have a visiting day profitable, it is essential that the teacher who visits should know exactly what she is looking for, and the demonstrating teacher can be much more helpful if she has been informed as to the particular type of work or method which she is supposed to illustrate. A conference between the two teachers must follow the visit and either an oral or written report of the day should be given to the supervisor. It is also very helpful for successful teachers to visit other successful teachers.

General visiting days in which teachers of one school visit those of another are valuable in the way of stimulation and for comparison of two systems, but as a rule they are not to be recommended as a fruitful means of teacher improvement. A visiting day with a definite purpose in mind, in which one or more teachers visit a school, knowing that they are expected to carry a real message back to those who remained at home, is much more apt to result in appreciable improvement in the special phase of work which occasioned the visit.

It is especially helpful to allow teachers in the same system to visit grades above and below the one they are teaching. Often teachers lose the continuity of the work if they continue in one grade for a number of years. If the fourth grade teacher can visit the first, second and third grades, she has more of an appreciation of the limitations of her pupils. If she is privileged to visit the fifth and sixth grades, she realizes something of the standards of work which she must attain. In some schools, principals feel that the best results are secured by changing the grades in which the teachers serve at least every three years so as to prevent narrow teaching.

School boards should realize that money needs to be appropriated to provide substitutes for teachers while they are visiting, and one or two days per year per teacher thus provided for would, if skillfully planned, result in no little improvement in teaching service.

School Exhibits. As a supervisory agency, school exhibits, entertainments, etc., have a value worth considering. The unity of purpose which such functions bring into play is good for the school. They socialize the school work and afford concrete problems for teaching activities. Great benefit to the teacher comes from the comparison which she makes between the showing made by her grade and others paralleling it. The best becomes contagious to all and a distinct advance in standards of accomplishment is sure to result from well-managed exhibits. Perhaps the greatest value of the exhibit comes through the brief interviews with parents which grow out of the

effort of each parent to see what his or her child has for display. Contact with the patrons always stimulates the work of the school, and even the mere seeing of "Johnnie's mother" by his teacher helps her to better understand him. The teachers see for themselves that the fathers and mothers are vitally interested in the work of the schools and a higher type of service is a natural consequence.

Teachers' Associations. The attendance upon associations, institutes, and educational lectures is a vital means of teacher improvement. The excuse, "I never hear anything which helps me in my work," should not be accepted. Teachers sometimes are found who think only in the concrete and unless a certain exercise or theory is especially for their grade, they get nothing from it. "Canned pedagogy" perhaps is a proper term for the sort of information which they consider of value. This class of teachers needs to be roused to the realization that school teaching is a "big business" and is not limited by the needs of any one grade. They need to realize that they cannot be worthy the name of teacher and confine their professional interest to the concrete devices helpful for only their particular group of pupils.

The inspiration which comes from the gathering itself, the contact with interests foreign to their own, the chance to see something besides the walls of their schoolroom, the variety of interest necessitated by the preparation for the trip, and the excitement of going are any one of them worth the financial sacrifice necessary to attend these meetings. Such attendance should be considered in rating of teachers.

Reading Circle Work. Professional reading while in service is necessary if one is to avoid deterioration. Its importance can scarcely be overestimated. Many principals and supervisors in Wisconsin are emphasizing this means of improvement but more needs to be done. The Wisconsin Teacher's Reading Circle Course carries with it definite diploma recognition and it hardly seems too much to expect that every principal in Wisconsin will see to it that either this course of reading or one equally good shall be accomplished each year by the teachers under his direction. Various plans are tried successfully. In some cases, groups of teachers form circles, appointing a chairman, and each purchasing one book which is read in part by each and reported on at evening meetings of a semisocial nature. This plan requires none of the time of the supervisor in preparation, unless he become one of the regular group. However, he should attend one or two of the meetings at least, to see that right methods are being followed in order that the work done can be recognized either in the way suggested in the reading circle pamphlet or by some local arrangement. This plan enables teachers to read books well suited to their needs, and makes possible the formation of several groups in one system.

Another method is to have the books chosen of general professional value, and to have but one group, led by the principal, in which each

member reports on various chapters. This plan, too, is effective in that it unifies the teaching body, it enables the principal to guide his teachers, and it makes possible the analysis of the theories set forth from varied angles. It also allows the supervisor to suggest many possibilities for concrete applications of helpful ideas read or reported which have been revealed to him through his visits to the various classrooms.

A third way of accomplishing the reading is to have the books owned by the school and allow the teachers to read a given book independently and to work out in their classrooms any new ideas suggested by the reading. As soon as any one is ready to report results, this is done at a meeting for the purpose.

The importance of professional reading should be brought to the attention of school boards when teachers are recommended for reappointment.

Written Criticisms. It is sometimes helpful to teachers to receive written suggestions after a visit by the supervisor. If this practice is followed, the supervisor must write only such suggestions as cannot be misunderstood and he must avoid such blanket expressions as "good recitation," "poor work," "see me," or the equally faulty plan of writing only a reference to some part of the course of study or some professional book. These fragmentary notes often create a spirit of resentment or of undue elation on the part of the teacher which defeats the real purpose of class visitation. A brief, positive, concrete suggestion such as, "Try to call on *all* of the pupils during each recitation" or "Try giving half of the class written work while the other half recite orally to keep each child busy all of the time," is about the only type of written criticism that it is safe to leave with a teacher without the opportunity of a conference to be sure that she understands its meaning and its exact application to the lesson seen.

Classroom Visitation

By far the most dynamic and far-reaching agency of supervision is classroom visitation when it is followed by a well thought out discussion with the teacher of the lesson observed. In no other way can the supervisor so effectively improve instruction. **One visit** followed by an able analysis of needs and remedies which leaves a teacher convinced of her strengths and weaknesses but filled with the desire to improve and in possession of the necessary information to enable her to work out right methods is worth **a dozen superficial visits.**

Successful classroom supervision is impossible unless an entirely friendly relation exists between supervisor and supervised. There must be no misunderstanding or lack of frankness if full benefit is to be derived. Even adverse criticism, if perfectly friendly, is welcomed by most teachers.

Another requisite is that the supervisor be fully informed regarding the psychology of childhood and present day standards of what

constitutes good teaching. He must also know the principles underlying those standards. This knowledge the average supervisor is apt to lack in some measure. It is imperative that he make every effort to acquaint himself with these facts by studying recent surveys, books on the curriculum, and on teaching practices by recognized authorities. He must also practice professional classroom visitation at all times. He should never allow himself to witness a single recitation without analyzing it and judging of its merit. The habit of being content with an impression that the lesson was good or poor is fatal to constructive supervisory work.

Some of the questions he should ask in his judgment of a recitation are suggested below.

Subject Matter:

1. Is the subject matter such that it can be of present use to the pupils in their social or business life? Is it apt to be of use to them in later life?
2. Is the subject matter being made the entire end in itself or are methods of attack and habits of work being given due consideration?
3. Is material outside of the text being brought into the recitation?
4. Are ample means supplied for visual instruction? (Stereopticon—specimens—pictures—etc.)
5. Is the subject matter such that it challenges effort by the whole class, or is it a part of the general knowledge of most of the pupils and is it consequently regarded with indifference by some of the pupils?

Method:

1. Was the teacher's aim justifiable by modern standards?
2. Were all of the pupils engaged in a concrete problem whose solution satisfied a real need?
3. Were the methods those which naturally grew out of the subject in hand?
4. Was the type of lesson the best one to secure the desired results?
5. Was memory work being permitted at the expense of thinking and judging exercises?
6. Was any opportunity given for present or early use of the information being acquired?
7. Was the motive strong enough to hold the pupils through the entire period and to stimulate continued research and interest in the problem?
8. Does the teacher realize that the only knowledge which can be depended upon to function is that which is gained by actual experience?
9. Does she make use of this truth by using *real* games to teach abstract arithmetic facts?
10. Does the teacher show good judgment in the choice of games, so that too much time is not required to learn the game?
11. Does the type of game chosen bring all of the class into activity?
12. Is the teacher accomplishing a creditable amount of work in a given time?
13. In drill exercises, is the practice work given based upon the previously determined needs of individual pupils? Are those pupils conscious of their special needs and are they putting intelligent and vigorous effort into their work with a definite end in view?
14. Is the work so planned that all of the pupils can answer some of the questions, but are superior pupils also at times challenged to their best effort?

15. Are summaries employed often throughout the lesson to preserve its unity?

16. Are children being enabled to *sense* new material by being constantly required to apply it to ordinary every-day uses, and to find in daily life concrete illustrations of abstractions found in books?

17. Are children's experiences and children's needs and problems made the starting point of all teaching?

18. Is the assignment stimulating? Is it suited to the needs of both strong and average pupils? Is it so made that it is fully understood by each pupil?

19. Is the teacher asking too many questions and being content with mere fact answers?

20. Are the pupils asking thought questions of each other and of the teacher?

21. Do pupils evidence ability to recite intelligently, continuously, and with ease upon some part of the lesson?

The Pupils:

1. Were all of the pupils being benefited? If not, why not? What remedies?

2. Were the pupils given all possible opportunity for exercising judgment?

3. Were they allowed to organize the material and act upon their own initiative?

4. Were healthful surroundings provided for the pupils? (Seats, lighting, ventilation, temperature, posture, distance from blackboard, chart, etc.)

5. Were all of the pupils actively engaged and thinking during the entire recitation?

When observing a recitation, it is usually best to face the class so that their reactions can be seen. Notes should be taken inconspicuously and one should appear sympathetic but should efface oneself as much as possible from the consciousness of both pupils and teacher in order that normal conditions may prevail.

One lesson unit is the least legitimate period for observation. After the lesson is finished, its one or two strongest points should be determined and made note of. These, with its one greatest weakness, will doubtless be sufficient material for one conference. The principal must be sure that he has analyzed the situation correctly and that he can support his position by reference to recognized authorities and by the application of basic principles as tests of merit. His most difficult task is now before him and the one which calls for the highest degree of skill on his part.

He must formulate a method for convincing the teacher of her needs in such a way that her reaction will be an intelligent realization of her needs and a desire to make vigorous effort to increase her teaching skill. Usually the best way to accomplish this is to show generous appreciation of the lesson's strong points, acknowledging the teacher's able grasp of those educational principles of which good use was made. Then by skillfully put questions, get the teacher to discover and to admit the major weakness of her lesson resulting from violations of certain principles of teaching. Self-condemnation by the

teacher of her own methods of work is of vastly more value to her as a means of growth than is the admitting of any number of faults after they are pointed out to her by someone else.

Throughout this process, the kindest and most professional spirit must obtain. It is a diagnosis of an important case, and much depends upon its accuracy, but it is purely impersonal and must be regarded as a means to a very much desired end—namely, increased skill with its consequent satisfaction for the teacher. After the supervisor and the teacher are on common ground, the supervisor has his opportunity to help her to grow in efficiency. If possible, get her to suggest better ways of doing what she had attempted. If she does not suggest all of the possible means, give her helpful suggestions as to just how to teach that kind of a lesson with a maximum amount of benefit to the pupils. Give her some references to aid her in discovering helpful basic principles to guide her in future situations. The supervisor may ask the teacher to invite him to witness a subsequent lesson carrying out the suggestions just given.

The conference should not close without the supervisor having convinced the teacher of her needs and without his feeling sure that his criticisms have been constructive and not destructive in their effect upon her future performance. This is accomplished when the teacher sees her lesson in perspective, viewed through the medium of modern educational thought, and when she has ceased to worry over any petty details of class procedure. Such matters as talking without permission, position of pupils, general disorder, or misspelled or mispronounced words have no place in the analysis of a piece of teaching. It is based upon infinitely bigger things and these should be taken care of first. Later those minor details detracting from the artistry of the performance may be mentioned to the teacher, always keeping in mind that the general plan of the recitation is of the greatest importance. Teachers who have presented a weak lesson should be encouraged to keep on trying until they conquer their particular difficulty and generous praise should be accorded them when they attain success.

The highest aim of the supervisor is reached when his teachers analyze their own efforts and think intelligently about their work.

Every system contains some teachers who are less enthusiastic than others and some who are less capable than others. It is impossible in a large system to reach all with this intensive supervision. Good results are obtained by working with the able teachers until they are very strong. The others may then be helped by visiting these.

If teachers prove indifferent to helpful suggestion, two courses are open to the supervisor. One is to teach for them,—actually showing them what is expected, following this with patient, helpful suggestions. If indifference continues, there seems only one other method to follow, and that is to tell the teacher kindly but firmly of her fault, asking her either to change her attitude or to resign from the system.

The same methods which the supervisor wishes the teachers to use with the pupils, he must use with them. He must not dictate unless he finds the situation one demanding authoritative action—and this will be a rare occurrence. If he values self-direction, exercise of judgment, purposeful activity, and civic and social interests as aims of education, he must use methods leading to those ends in all of his supervision, for "as is the supervisor, so is the school system under his direction."

IV CONCLUSION

There has been no attempt in this bulletin to give an exhaustive treatment of supervision as a science; but instead, the aim has been to point the way to some practical measures which any supervisor can carry out. The possibilities of supervisory agencies as aids to the educative process are as yet only touched upon by educators. Great progress in the art of effective supervision will doubtless be made in the next few years. This implies that the suggestions in this pamphlet are but a step in the right direction even though they have been gathered from the best supervisory practice of the present time. Every enterprising supervisor must therefore be constantly alert, watching for opportunities to improve upon present methods of supervision, for his is a position of rare opportunity for invaluable service in this comparatively new field of educational thought.

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